

**Abstract**







## The Liberal-Empiricist view

LESZEK KOLAKOWSKI: *Marxism and Beyond*. Translated by Jane Zolotor. Pp. 240pp. The Paul Press, £2.  
ETIENNE KAMENKA: *Marxism and Ethics*. 7pp. Macmillan. (Paperback, 9s.)

One of the side-effects of last year's inner-party upheaval in Poland was the expulsion from academic and public life of Professor Leszek Kolakowski, previously associated with the "revisionist" wing of the Communist Party and one of the young anti-Stalinist rebels who in 1956 made use of Gomułka's accession to power to press for all-round liberalization, while still retaining their faith in the basic principles of Marxism. Like the other revisionists, he is now very much out of favour. Unlike his Jewish colleagues, who were simply thrown out of their jobs, and then systematically stripped of everything but their clothes, before being allowed to emigrate, he has been permitted to take an extended two-year holiday in Canada, where he is currently engaged as a visiting lecturer in philosophy. He thus benefits from an important factor in present-day "People's Poland", where even rebels are granted some limited tolerance if only they do not belong to the accused race that spawned Marx and Rosa Luxemburg.

If one disregards the more nauseating aspects of this hypocrisy in what purports to be a socialist country, it is possible to feel that Kolakowski's liberal-empiricist version of Marxism does represent a hopeful

phenomenon and in the long run stands quite a decent chance of inaugurating a return to a more civilized and tolerant atmosphere. It is after all arguable that a native-born Polish philosopher, who in some fashion still carries his inherited Catholic moral values around with him, is in a better position to promote libertarian views than are the surviving members of an unpopular and unrepresentative national minority.

The essays assembled in *Marxism and Beyond* were for the most part published in various Polish journals in the late 1950s, when the country had a brief spell of liberalization. The present selection overlaps with the German-language edition issued by Piper in Munich in 1960, under the title *Der Mensch ohne Alternative*, although this is not made clear to the reader. It has taken Kolakowski rather a long time to reach the English-speaking world, which is a pity, since some of the more controversial of these writings are now rather dated. It is no longer an urgent matter, even among communists, to argue the case against Stalin. The real debate nowadays concerns the relevance of Marxism as a theory of history and its relation to the western tradition of thought. The rather large claims made for Kolakowski by Mr. Len Labelle in his editorial preface are not wholly sustained by the examples he has chosen; but the longish essay on "Karl Marx and the Classical Definition of Truth" (an expanded version of a lecture given at the University of Tübingen in December, 1958) serves as a reminder that its author is a professional philosopher who first came to the

attention of Polish readers with a collection called *Essays on Catholic Philosophy* in 1955, when he was all of twenty-eight years old. The 1958 paper contains some interesting ideas, notably on the Spinozist element in Marxism, a theme recently brought into prominence by Louis Althusser in France. It does not establish Kolakowski as a major figure, but it does suggest that philosopher, are not necessarily obliged to talk nonsense whenever someone mentions Marx or Hegel. If a rumour to this effect spreads from the author's present Canadian domicile to learned circles south of the border, Kolakowski's stay in North America may in the end perhaps prove advantageous to all concerned.

Professor Eugene Kamenka, who holds a research chair in philosophy at the Australian National University in Canberra, is a more original and forceful thinker than Kolakowski, with whom he shares a commitment to humanist ethics and a thorough knowledge of the Marxist tradition. Having been for the most part brought up in the West, and in the English-speaking world at that, he is more sharply critical of all aspects of Soviet Marxism, and somewhat less sympathetic to the Hegelian inheritance. In other respects he has much in common with Kolakowski, notably a conviction that moral philosophy can take Marx as a starting-point, but must then go on to tackle problems raised but not solved by the Marxist school. He offers the interesting suggestion that Hegel and Marx inherited that part of scholastic metaphysics which makes it

possible to conceive man rather than God as an unconditioned being, whose unconditionedness is one of his perfections, essential to his (true) nature, and therefore to be deduced from it. It is from the scholastic view of God that Marx unconsciously derives the conception of man as (properly) always a subject and never a predicate.

This should give nourishment for thought to the new breed of Catholic Marxists, but they will find Professor Kamenka enlisted on the empiricist side of this particular debate. *Marxism and Ethics* is an excellent

## Bolshevik biographies

GEORGES HAUPT and JEAN-JACQUES MARIE (Editors): *Les Bolchéviques par eux-mêmes*. 398pp. Paris: Maspero, 24.65fr.

When work on the Granat Russian Encyclopedia, interrupted by the revolution, was resumed in the middle 1920s, it was decided to include in one of the later volumes biographical accounts of the principal participants in the events of October, 1917. Nearly all those approached supplied autobiographies; a few of the leaders, Zinoviev and Stalin included, contributed third-person biographies obviously authorized by them, and Trotsky's biography was written by an old party figure to ensure that it did not infringe current standards of orthodoxy. Two hundred and forty-six such biographies were published in supplements to Volume 41 of the encyclopedia between 1927

and 1929. Of these nearly all now appear in a French translation, a convenient collection in Granat Encyclopedia is handy nor readily available. Most of the biographies pay attention to the records of revolutionaries before 1917 than to those after. The main or only information on their birth and lives. On what happened after it is, of course, silent; and a proportion of those whose careers were liquidated in Stalin's of the 1930s. The editors of *Les Bolchéviques*, par eux-mêmes, have added to the records, notes, subsequent careers and fate of those concerned. A few of these polemical in tone and highly speculative; but most are factual and balanced. They deserve the gratitude of all of Soviet affairs.

## General

David Walder  
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Other historians, now working on the newly opened archives, are to say Mr. Walder, they will have to work very hard indeed."

Anthony Storr, *Sunday Times*  
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unreadable part of *The Ideology*, to the theories of "Max". As Dr. McLellan says, "Sankt Max" may be too long to be worth while reading but while asking why it is there at all.

A minor criticism of this work is that it does not really as Dr. McLellan suggests, Marx's "specific debts to temporaries", unless one arbitrarily limits the term "temporary" to the various Hegelian groups with which he associated. As is well known, Marx's reading during this period was phenomenally wide and intense; there is no prima facie reason he should not have borrowed particular ideas from a French source rather than from a German one. Dr. McLellan is aware of this, but the limits he has imposed on the scope of his study may easily cause the reader to think of Marx as a member of an exclusive club of German ideologists rather than the intellectual giant he really was.

Anthony Curtis, *Sunday Telegraph* 50s

EDITED BY ALBERT FRIED  
RICHARD M. ELMAN  
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## Marx as a German nestling

D. McLELLAN: *The Young Hegelians and Karl Marx*. 170pp. Macmillan, £2 15s.

The assessment of the influence of A on B and vice versa is one of the staple activities of the historian of philosophical thought. Often it is a rather futile exercise, but when a really big figure is involved it not only has a fascination for specialists but may also be productive of genuinely new insights.

Germany in the late 1830s and early 1840s offers splendid opportunities for this type of performance; for this was the time when Karl Marx was still just one of the many occupants of the nest of Young Hegelians. Not until the famous Paris Manuscripts of 1844 does it become possible to distinguish him clearly from the rest and to recognize his true originality. A study of Young Hegelian thought, therefore, enables one to trace the origins of many of the ideas which he subsequently embodied in his world-shaking ideology.

However, the study is one of considerable difficulty; for the movement of ideas during these years is swift and confusing. Even an historian of philosophy, moreover, is

liable to find the works of the Young Hegelians a penance to read. With the possible exception of Feuerbach, they were not thinkers of the first rank and they tended to follow their great master only too faithfully in ambiguity and obscurity of expression. Indeed, to most modern readers the style of German philosophical thought at this time is tiresome even when not positively repulsive.




Many have plunged into this rather murky lake, to fish up items which, when cleaned of their excrecences, are of interest and value; hitherto most of the divers have carried a somewhat heavy load of "commitment" (either for or against Marx) among their equipment. As Dr. McLellan recognizes, this has not been entirely to the benefit of scholarship. The importance of the additional he now makes to the long list of "Marxist origins" books is that it examines the intellectual history of the period not only with a strict objectivity but also with a meticulous regard for chronology. As a result, his work fully confirms his publisher's claim that it will be "essential reading for students of nineteenth-century German thought and Marxism".

Two random examples will suffice to illustrate the value of his inquiry.

Engels, in his *Ludwig Feuerbach and the End of German Classical Philosophy*, written some fifty years after the events with which it deals, presents Feuerbach's *The Essence of Christianity* as having "broken the spell" of Hegelian idealism. This widely-accepted view is shown by Dr. McLellan to be wrong. In its original edition, Feuerbach's book seemed to most of the Young Hegelians, including Marx himself, "a continuation of Hegel's doctrines". It was the later writings of Feuerbach (including the later editions of the *Essence*) that made the real break. Marx, moreover, was by no means so deeply influenced by Feuerbach as is generally supposed. He did not get his materialism from the *Essence*, and such "specific borrowings" as he made from the book focus on the idea, expressed in its first few pages, of "man's being distinguished from an animal by his consciousness of himself as a member of a species". It was this, not materialism, that was taken straight over by Marx in *Die Judenfrage* and developed in the Paris MSS. Perhaps other specialists who have read as much of the relevant literature as Dr. McLellan has (and read it as carefully) may wish to modify this judgment; but it seems

likely, to say the least, that Dr. McLellan has got the record straighter than any of his predecessors in this line of inquiry.

The other example concerns the influence of that strange figure, Max Stirner, a comet that so briefly but disturbingly crossed the Young Hegelian path. Dr. McLellan agrees with previous writers that, unlike Bauer, Feuerbach and Hess, "Stirner had no positive doctrine to offer Marx". He considers, nevertheless, that Stirner had an important negative influence, in so far as the first "mature" work by Marx and Engels, *The German Ideology*, "comprises a criticism of Feuerbach which borrows elements from Stirner and a criticism of Stirner which tacitly admits the validity of his attack on Feuerbach but maintains that it no longer applies". Whether or not one regards this point as conclusively proved—and there does seem some contradiction between the attempt to minimize the Feuerbachian impact on Marx and the statement that in 1844 Marx "was, and (more importantly) was regarded as being a disciple of Feuerbach"—it helps to explain the otherwise almost inexplicable amount of attention that Marx gave, in the second and nearly

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# Sellers



## Local boy

WILLIAM CARLOS WILLIAMS: *The Build-up*. 335pp. MacGibbon and Kee. 42s.

"I'm writing a novel," said Williams at the *Build-up* in a letter to Robert Lowell. "It's a novel, as usual, about my local scene (the scene is merely what I know). I want to write it so that when I speak of a chair it will stand upon four legs in a room. And of course it will stand upon a four-legged sentence on a page at the same time." Williams's way with prose writing—from the chair in the sentence to the containing episode—echoes, as Pound put it, "major form". The form of the trilogy, which began with *White Mule* and *In the Money*, and is brought to an open-ended conclusion in *The Build-up*, admits plot chiefly in its awareness of time passing. A "real" plot would have interfered with Williams's sense of truth to life: there are no parallel developments of groups of characters, no structural ironies, and Williams is uninterested in the knowing asymmetries of the *nouveau roman*. So the trilogy is close to being a biography of the Stecher family—the Herman family, that is, into which Williams married—and *The Build-up* overlaps, in some of its finest stretches, with the *Autobiography*, published in the previous year.

A reluctance to trust oneself to the current of the thing can result in the reader's imposing an alien form, and this happens in a significant way on the dust jacket, where we read:

Joe Stecher and his wife have struggled from their early poverty and strangeness into social acceptance and comparative ease. But somewhere along the line they have not only lost the magic of their youth, but the dream of America the golden land has become the taste of brass.

This kind of sentimental Spenglerism, so dear to the English with their comforting notion of America as a land of doomed hopes, tides the book up no end, but its pop sociology takes no purchase on Williams's human actualities. Joe Stecher reaches ultimate

misery because a war is threatening with Germany, his homeland, and—more poignantly—his son has accidentally shot himself. It is precisely Williams's avoidance of "major form" and his refusal to drag in abstractions which give this close its felt weight. In a novel by Hardy the accident would be called on to prove something, but Williams has no interest in the President of the Immortals or in easy generalities about America the golden.

The "ideological" centre of the book occurs when Gertie Stecher, Joe's wife, invited South by a friend, is called on to talk to a group of Southerners, avid for aristocracy, about her Viking forebears. What she tells them is:

Your ancestors were immigrants, too, and many of them were poor. They had to work... My Eva Anderson, who came to me three years ago, is a fine, healthy girl. Now she can speak English. She got married to a farmer in Minnesota, pretty soon her children will be the leading citizens, maybe doctors and lawyers and then you'll see. They have brains. But that is what America is for...

Mrs. Stecher speaks in character, but Williams casts no shadow of irony on what she says and neither does the book's conclusion. He is with her here, although he knows more than she knows and exhibits her at times in all her crass insensitivity—particularly when she is instrumental in getting her elder daughter married to the wrong man. Yet, in some way, she remains admirable and her social getting-on, too, opens a field for praiseworthy energies and endeavours. The refusal to simplify what he knew into a plotted novel entails Williams's occasional loss of impetus. But it is of a piece with his refusal to simplify the quality, weave and outcome of human motive—from Mrs. Stecher's almost mindless thrust of ego to his own proposal of marriage to the girl he is not yet in love with. Form for Williams is the difficult mimesis of such human waywardness.

## Romantic rhetoric

VASSILIOS VASSILIKOS: *Z*. Translated by Marilyn Calmann. 406pp. Macdonald. 30s.

The best that can be said for this strange novel is that it commemorates a scandalous political crime which might otherwise be forgotten in the English-speaking world. Grigoris Lambrakis, the Greek left-wing deputy, was murdered in 1963 after addressing a nuclear disarmament meeting. The people responsible were, of course, right-wingers—though nowadays some of them are as likely to be called "moderates" since the Colonels' coup, and may be exiled in other nations of Europe, complaining of the "extremism" of Greece's most recent tyrants.

The character representing Lambrakis in this story is given a powerful speech, which some will consider extremist:

Our Western allies, I say, and their Greek friends, who show the excessive zeal of the slave eager to curry favour with his master, so excessive indeed, so blatantly cruel that even their master is often compelled to disavow them—our Western allies and their local flunkies look upon peace as a threat levelled directly against themselves. Throughout the eighteen years of peace since the end of the Second World War, some eighteen localized wars have taken place...

His speech is applauded with cries of "Down with Nato!" There are several pages of this oration—which seems, at least to the present reviewer, very sound.

Yet most of the story is about the right-wingers responsible for the murder with their police accomplices. Mr. Vassilikos cannot abide these people and describes them with a noisy contempt which makes his fiction boring. They have names like Autocratour and Mastodontosaur. He sees them as pterodactyls, turkey buzzards, coy-

otes. (The author has travelled extensively in the United States, and the translator is American.) For the dead man, he offers Byronic rhapsodies.

The dead are unaware of their sacrifice and this makes them still more beautiful. ... Clothed in the beauty of death, they have carried off those innumerable secrets that no April profusion will ever bring to light.

He imagines the dead man's soul hovering over the body as it passes, by railway train, through the mountains, waiting for

the brave men of the Resistance to come out of their hideout and fall

## Media man

MICHAEL FELD: *The Sabbatical Year*. 318pp. Alan Ross. 30s.

Bryan Elgin, narrator of this comic novel, works as research assistant to a television personality called Mudding, "the arch inquisitor of England—always on the mass communications media to put it sociologically".

Not only the tweedledee, but also weekly columns in the daily papers, and a real old-world type book, hard covers—coming soon exposing The Hidden Dangers Within Society Today. 1000 Examples Of, incorporating Suggestions With A Smile For Putting Us Back Where We Belong.

Some will find Michael Feld's style boringly facetious; but his bizarre sentences, built of London slang and word-play, are composed fastidiously, and each has a point. The reader may be pleasantly reminded of Firbank, seeing the paragraphs—often only one sentence long—spaced on the page like verses, to be read one at a time. There is a little of Firbank,

upon the policeman and his wife, the peak, adorn it, foot it, and drink much wine, and up there among the eagles.

Such fantasies are too easily he read easily now in English. Where the author has long been governed as a most inquisitorial police state Free World, even before the regime deranged the scene—ther—almost to the point "their master is complete" point, yet.

As in the first part of *Cancer Ward*, though perhaps with greater coherence now that the rebellious ex-convict Kostoglov is more decisively at the centre of the novel, we are presented with a devastating dossier on Stalinist society, usually through Kostoglov's own observations, but often through other characters' casual remarks. Conversation is spiced with cool references to the banishment of racial minorities, to bribery, black-marketeering, incompetent bureaucracy and, of course, the labour camps, always on Kostoglov's mind because he has still not been "rehabilitated"; though released from his camp, he is now officially an "exile"

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## More mortal coils

SOLZHENITSYN: *Cancer Ward*. Part II. Translated by Dmitri Nabokov and David Burg. Bodley Head. 30s.

Part II of Solzhenitsyn's *Cancer Ward* continues to report on Kostoglov's hypernephroma and his confinement in the cancer wing of a provincial hospital, and it has been seen that the complete "their master is complete" point, yet.

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## Unlikely

ROBIN CHAPMAN: *My Vision's Enemy*. 247pp. Hodder and Stoughton. 30s.

A would-be adulterous television director, an unwillingly pregnant wife, a potentially homicidal missionary—at first glance these ingredients for Robin Chapman's second novel seem to indicate that we are in for yet another helping of trendy anguish. Happily, this is not the case. The anguish is there, all right, but it is real and necessary; an essential part of the novel's development, but not dominant.

It would have been all too easy for Mr. Chapman to overdramatize his characters: Andrew, the television director, for example, who instead is kept nicely in focus; a harassed, basically kind man, he is desperately trying to make sense of his failing marriage. John, Andrew's brother, is haunted by guilt, having been indirectly involved

in two deaths which he was too timid or imperceptive to prevent. He now sees God as malevolent, requiring blood-sacrifices; and for a time it seems probable that he has offered just such a sacrifice by murdering a schoolboy.

Mr. Chapman's main achievement is to demonstrate the crippling emotional separateness of these people: John, humiliated by guilt and bitter disappointment; Andrew, hopelessly confused and on the edge of a possibly ruinous affair; Andrew's wife, distraught and comfortless; and, finally, Andrew's parents, who are reaching the end of a lifetime of misunderstanding. Their sad, accusatory conversations are among the best things in the book (together with John's harrowing protracted suicide) and convey a sense of chances irrevocably lost, of long-harboured grudges and unthinking selfishness which has twice the force of John's more direct, and, perhaps, overlong confession.

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## Separate

ROBIN CHAPMAN: *My Vision's Enemy*. 247pp. Hodder and Stoughton. 30s.

A would-be adulterous television director, an unwillingly pregnant wife, a potentially homicidal missionary—at first glance these ingredients for Robin Chapman's second novel seem to indicate that we are in for yet another helping of trendy anguish. Happily, this is not the case. The anguish is there, all right, but it is real and necessary; an essential part of the novel's development, but not dominant.

It would have been all too easy for Mr. Chapman to overdramatize his characters: Andrew, the television director, for example, who instead is kept nicely in focus; a harassed, basically kind man, he is desperately trying to make sense of his failing marriage. John, Andrew's brother, is haunted by guilt, having been indirectly involved

in two deaths which he was too timid or imperceptive to prevent. He now sees God as malevolent, requiring blood-sacrifices; and for a time it seems probable that he has offered just such a sacrifice by murdering a schoolboy.

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where he must return when discharged from the hospital.

A new character joins Kostoglov's ward in this second section—a gloomy, distrustful man called Shulubin. He describes his unfortunate life to Kostoglov, the only man he can trust. At one time he had been a university lecturer, changing his subject every time there was a purge in the field in which he was working. From his chair of dialectical materialism he was once forced to declare that the theory of relativity was "counter-revolutionary obscurantism". In the end he has settled for the quiet life of a librarian, although even "librarians receive secret instructions from the authorities: for the destruction of books by that or that author". In spite of it all, Shulubin, now crippled by an advanced cancer, retains an unshakable inner integrity, and warns Kostoglov: "Don't ever blame socialism for the suffering and cruel years you've been through."

It should indeed not be forgotten that Solzhenitsyn's criticism of Soviet society is often inspired by ideas that are, if anything, more radical than those of the Soviet authorities. His main targets are men who have betrayed the proletarian revolution and become corrupt with official privilege and luxury. Shulubin approvingly quotes Lenin's *April Theses* to the effect that "No official should

receive a salary higher than the average pay of a good worker". When Kostoglov is discharged from hospital, and visits a local department store, he is scandalized by the sight of a man buying a silk shirt. He himself cannot even afford the medicines he needs to survive.

It is as a socialist that Solzhenitsyn vents his anger against official corruption and labour camps. He calls his socialism "ethical socialism". Under it, the motivations of society will be strictly ethical, and the concept of economic interest, whether individual or collective, will be abolished. Such a society would have something in common with recent attempts in Cuba to abolish material incentives and replace them by moral ones. For Solzhenitsyn, the interests of the collective are merely a slightly more rational manifestation of the individual interests that operate in capitalist countries, and therefore just as selfish and evil. The whole notion of interest must be abolished from human life. Only then will spiritual values prevail. This "ethical socialism" has little to offer most of those in the west who have sought to use Solzhenitsyn as a weapon in the Cold War.

As with the first volume (reviewed in the *TLS* on September 19, 1968) and to a lesser extent with Solzhenitsyn's other recently published work, *The First Circle*, the often spectacular richness of the original Russian is lost in translation.

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# Small powers and their problems

ROBERT L. ROHSTEIN: *Alliances and Small Powers*. 331pp. Columbia University Press. £4.10s.

It has always been possible to arrange sovereign states in a more or less definite spectrum of size and power. The criteria are fairly simple, starting with area, resources and manpower; but there is a qualitative difference between small powers and great powers? Is there in fact a gap in the spectrum across which it is impossible for a small power to leap a difference in kind and not merely in degree? Professor Rohstein argues in *Alliances and Small Powers* that there is, though he states his thesis with many reservations, and with a diffidence which may encourage scepticism. He argues for the existence of such a difference not only in the age of modern technology, but as far back as 1814, when the Treaty of Chaumont in effect defined a great power as one which could guarantee to put 60,000 men into the field against Napoleon.

In fact the choice of starting-point betrays the ambiguity of Professor Rohstein's thesis. A numerical or any similarly quantitative criterion is necessarily arbitrary. By such a criterion a small power is simply a large power writ small. The four powers which chose the criterion in 1814 could equally easily have selected a lower figure, which would have admitted several other allies, or three of them could have selected a higher figure, which would have excluded Britain. In fact the four powers selected a figure which exactly suited themselves and no one else, thereby proving that they were the great powers before the criterion was defined. Moreover, throughout the ensuing negotiations, which culminated in the Treaties of Vienna and Paris, they gave an important status to their statistical committee, which ensured that no exchanges of territory could upset the balance of power in terms

of crude population and territorial extent. At this date a small power therefore differed from a great power solely in having quantitatively fewer resources of the same kind, not in being qualitatively another kind of entity.

Professor Rohstein is on firmer ground when he reaches the turn of the century. After the industrial revolution successively reached the major countries of Europe it became increasingly difficult for the smaller powers to compete on equal terms. They ceased to be small merely in the sense that they had less resources than the great powers, and there were certain kinds of resources which they could not afford to develop at all. They had thus to buy industrial technology, including spares and technical experts, from the major powers, who were thereby in a position to exercise pressure on them by reducing or limiting their capacity for self-defence. The climax of this process arrived with the development of nuclear weapons and guided missiles, which are at present though Professor Rohstein takes a cautious view of the future—beyond the resources of any but a handful of great powers.

The history of the past century and a half suggests that the definition of a small power changes with circumstances, and may well change again. Different powers have crossed the threshold at different dates, whether on their way up or down. Perhaps it would be better to speak of an intermediate zone rather than a threshold, since the world is not simply divided into great and small powers, there being also middle powers—almost entirely excluded from Professor Rohstein's analysis and thus involving some oversimplification: for instance, he ranks

Italy as a great power and Poland as a small power, though both perhaps belong rather in the middle range. The justification is, it may be argued, that there is a psychology of great and small powers, which differentiates their conduct. Moreover, it is important to Professor Rohstein's argument to be able to isolate the behaviour of small powers in their relations only with great powers, and in particular with groups of rival great powers. For this latter reason he also excludes the whole of Latin America from consideration, since in that area there is effectively only one great power to consider.

The greater part of *Alliances and Small Powers* is therefore concerned, by a process of elimination, with a handful of European states, at least up to 1939. The questions Professor Rohstein asks are: what is, and what should be, the reaction of small powers to the situations in which their security is threatened by the relations of great powers; and are there rules of conduct guiding them different from those which guide the great powers in such situations? His answer to the last question is affirmative, and it is based on a detailed analysis of two case studies: the first concerning Belgium from the date of the treaty guaranteeing its neutrality, and the second the Little Entente of Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia and Rumania between the wars.

A number of choices face a small power in such a situation: neutrality, collective security, alliance with a great power, or alliance with a number of other small powers. Some of these choices admit of variants: neutrality may be imposed by international guarantee or unilaterally asserted; for instance, and alliances

with a great power may be temporary or take the form of permanent protection. Professor Rohstein holds out little hope for the small power which tries to play "balance of power" politics or adopts a policy of "non-alignment". Even a large power like India (though by choice not a "great power") failed to make a success of non-alignment.

The moral is that a small power's freedom to choose is a function of its own strength and determination—and perhaps also of its geographical position. The only successful neutrals in the Second World War were among the most heavily armed of all the lesser powers. In so far as the experience of Belgium and the Little Entente teaches any lesson, it is that none of the available choices really works, when the great powers are at loggerheads. Admittedly they all make mistakes, but it is difficult to see how they could have saved themselves by acting otherwise.

Since the war, Professor Rohstein points out, circumstances have greatly changed, and in some respects to the advantage of small powers. Militarily they are much weaker than before relative to the great powers, but politically they are somewhat stronger. There are new institutions such as Nato and the Common Market within which sovereignty can to some extent be pooled. There is a kind of world-morality coming into existence through the United Nations which has some effect on great powers (though admittedly not much on the Soviet Union). There are entirely new kinds of small powers coming into existence as a result of decolonization, and in many cases their real problems are not with the great powers but with each other. There is a new relationship develop-

ing between the great powers which is bi-polar on the level of technology but much more on the level of politics and morale. Above all, there is the nuclear stalemate.

Professor Rohstein deals in his final chapter to the effect of changes on the prospect of nuclear war. His main concern is danger that, having seen the expedient fail, they will resort to the acquisition of nuclear weapons. The prospect of nuclear warheads, which, cheap, but also of deterring power, but they might be used against them in the future, against their immediate need, and thus perhaps precipitating nuclear war.

Professor Rohstein takes of nuclear proliferation what it may be suspected to be: a pessimistic view. He sees the main motive for his small powers to acquire nuclear weapons as the nightmare of every State should develop nuclear weapons by sharing it with them and making it known to them. He is a nuclear realist, as he admits, a very realistic one, though he thinks that the French people, who are just as pacifist and shortsighted as the British, preferred to do nothing at the end of the war, and the "Locarno guarantee" was already in the East "were already in the East" were already in the East. He made it abundantly clear that Hitler had taken the first step towards destroying the system of alliances on the Continent.

He has been observed that military policy was in contradiction with her foreign policy. Professor Chapman attributes this French middle between the two world wars to the incapacity of the political personnel of the Third Republic who, aware of the position of the French people, prepared to take any risk in order to avoid the description of "belle époque", and, secondly, to the even ineptitude of the French general staff.

He recalls that Clemenceau was responsible for a law passed in 1917 whereby divisional generals should be retired at the age of sixty-two, and brigade generals at fifty-eight. Clemenceau wanted "a young army". After Clemenceau, always distrustful of generals, was defeated in the Presidential election in 1920 and retired to his native Vendée, an angry and bitter old man, his plans for a "young army" were discarded. Instead:

the decree of January 23, 1919, created a body consisting of the Marshals of France as life members, shortly to be joined by Fayolle, Franchet d'Espèrey and Lyaulley... all... retired beyond the age limit, and ten (later twelve) divisional generals... All had a right to vote... "It was", wrote General Mordacq [Clemenceau's right-hand man], "the complete negation of every lesson of the war. It became a true Council of which the membership would be increased each month and end in reaching a figure so high that one could no longer make oneself heard." Inside the War Office the old anomaly prevailed and each directorate became a law to itself.

To Professor Chapman, the man most guilty for France's total unpreparedness for the 1940 campaign was none other than Pétain. His prestige as the "victor of Verdun" (a title which has often been disputed) enabled him, over the years, to become the most influential among the French Army leaders. As distinct from von Seeckt's small, highly professional and relatively young German post-Verdun army, the French high command had no coherent military doctrine to speak of and, once things began to look dangerous around 1930, it took the line of least resistance, which was to rely solely on a defensive strategy. Painlevé, the Minister of Defence, "a middle-headed pacifist" who did not believe in the possibility of invading Germany, strongly favoured the Maginot Line, and did so with the wholehearted approval of Pétain and the other old generals.

In approving the Maginot Line and in advocating the "continuous front" policy, Pétain did not even prove consistent. Thus, in 1934, as Minister of War in the short-lived Doumergue Government, he told the army committee of the Senate that it was unnecessary to extend the Maginot Line to the Luxembourg frontier to the Channel, since "with a few destructive armoured divisions we could be in the Ardennes without being impeded by the frontiers of Belgium, while, to defend the northern frontier, one must go into Belgium". Although Professor Chapman is rather more charitable to Weygand, Pétain, and Gamelin, the three leading military figures in the

book: none of them proposed to do anything about Hitler's reoccupation of the Rhineland; none thought it possible for France to go to the defence of Czechoslovakia; none favoured any kind of striking force—either in the form of German-like tank formations or of a powerful air force. In the end, the Maginot Line was not extended; the Ardennes, far from being "impenetrable", proved that fatal gap through which the German armoured divisions poured into France in May, 1940, and France had neither the necessary tank formations, still less an air force, to put up any serious resistance.

If the French generals proved incompetent, the French politicians proved equally lamentable—with only a few exceptions like M. Paul Reynaud. Decisions were left to figures like Albert Sarraut, who uttered dreadful threats the day Hitler reoccupied the Rhineland only to climb down a few days later, "since the British wouldn't help", or, worse still, to a nonentity like Edouard Daladier, "le taureau de Vauluse", who clung to the post of War Minister for years on end. He was the great patron of Gamelin, whose irresponsible optimism was as great as Pétain's and Weygand's. Daladier, though at first uneasy about betraying Czechoslovakia, promptly turned himself into a national hero after Munich, thundered against the communists, and other "warmongers", prided himself during the "phony war" on being "avare du sang français", and created a super-Maginot myth by declaring on every occasion that "formidable" field fortifications had been built all along the Belgian frontier, with the suggestion that a German invasion was even more impossible than before.

Professor Chapman deals with one of the less familiar, but immensely important, aspects of France's unpreparedness for the invasion: and that was the extreme weakness of the French armaments, and particularly aircraft, industries. If France today is one of the great industrial powers of the world, she was nothing of the kind in the 1930s. Professor Chapman draws a truly depressing picture of the state of the French aircraft industry. Thus, in 1933 it was discovered that the French air force was completely obsolete and that "no plan of attack or defence had been drawn up since 1918". In 1934 a "Plan I" was adopted; but, by 1938, the 1,375 planes, only 130 had been ordered since the adoption of this Plan. At the time of Munich, General Vuillemin, Chief of Air Staff, reported that he could put 250 fighters in the air and 320 bombers. He expected some help from Britain,

and ordered some planes from the United States; but, at the same time, expected 40 per cent casualties at the end of the first month, and 64 per cent by the end of the second. The situation in the tank industry was little better. It was impossible, in these conditions, to expect a high morale on the part of the ordinary French soldier in May and June, 1940. How could there be? The nation had been fed on myths for years. Both the generals and the politicians had misled it and this suddenly became tragically apparent the day the German panzers began their dash from Sedan to the Channel ports, with nothing to stop them, and the Luftwaffe spread panic among both soldiers and civilians, neither knowing where any help could come from. Add to this the British "desertion" at Dunkirk, and the feeling of complete isolation could not but breed defeatism.

Professor Chapman tells the story in minute detail, discussing the faults and merits of a large number of French generals and army units. It is not a story of a simple débâcle. Since the French lost 120,000 soldiers in dead alone, it is wrong to suppose that they did not fight. Many did, though as a matter of personal honour, rather than with any conviction that France had any chance of winning the war. This would account for the good fight put up here and there, for instance, by de Lattre de Tassigny at Belth, or de Gaulle at Abbeville, or by Billotte, Blanchard and others in the north. But, especially after Dunkirk, the French army, and even more so, the civilians, were almost completely demoralized, and the Armistice was accepted, in the main, with a sigh of relief. One of the most paradoxical phenomena was Pétain. The man who, according to Professor Chapman, was more to blame than any other for the twenty years of blunders that had made the catastrophe inevitable, became the Saviour of France—and was accepted as such, if not by all Frenchmen, then certainly by a great majority—at least in June and July, 1940.

One of the few "positive" characters to emerge from this wretched story of general incompetence and inefficiency is M. Raoul Dautry, a high-ranking engineer, who became Minister of Armaments during the "phony war". He was the type of efficient technocrat who was to become a familiar French figure under the Fourth and Fifth Republics. Under the Third, he was almost unique. If there had been hundreds of Dautrys in France between 1918 and 1940, the whole story of 1940 would have been a very different one.

This is because he is essentially a simple, straightforward man. He has written a book which reflects these characteristics and which, without being profound, contributes something of value to our understanding of the events in the Far East at that time.

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of the campaign, applies his experience to some of the current cold war problems of America and its allies. Several of his ideas may strike sceptical and polished analysts as ingenious, but there is now sufficient evidence to show that this belief was false; but

the War in Korea, written by General Ridgway in 1965-66, is for the most part an account of the campaign as he saw it; initially as the commander of the United Nations land force, subsequently as successor to General MacArthur in Tokyo. It is none the worse for being plainly subjective. Ridgway arrived in Korea when morale was declining among the troops of all nations, not least his own. There was a growing belief among the officers that the high command in Tokyo intended to withdraw altogether from the peninsula in an attempt to force the United Nations to invade Communist China. There is now sufficient evidence to show that this belief was false; but

## Explaining the debacle

CHAPMAN: *Why France Collapsed*. 403pp. Cassell. £3.3s.

There have been so many books on the collapse of 1940 that often, one is left with a sense of déjà vu. However, Professor Chapman's admirable *Why France Collapsed*. Not only does it provide any sensational new view, but, unlike Weygand, Pétain, Daladier, Reynaud, or de Gaulle, he has no axe to grind. His is the best demonstration we have of the simple fact that the rout of the French army in five weeks, at the hands of Hitler's Wehrmacht and Luftwaffe, was inevitable.

The collapse of France had nothing to do with the age limit, and ten (later twelve) divisional generals... All had a right to vote... "It was", wrote General Mordacq [Clemenceau's right-hand man], "the complete negation of every lesson of the war. It became a true Council of which the membership would be increased each month and end in reaching a figure so high that one could no longer make oneself heard." Inside the War Office the old anomaly prevailed and each directorate became a law to itself.

To Professor Chapman, the man most guilty for France's total unpreparedness for the 1940 campaign was none other than Pétain. His prestige as the "victor of Verdun" (a title which has often been disputed) enabled him, over the years, to become the most influential among the French Army leaders. As distinct from von Seeckt's small, highly professional and relatively young German post-Verdun army, the French high command had no coherent military doctrine to speak of and, once things began to look dangerous around 1930, it took the line of least resistance, which was to rely solely on a defensive strategy. Painlevé, the Minister of Defence, "a middle-headed pacifist" who did not believe in the possibility of invading Germany, strongly favoured the Maginot Line, and did so with the wholehearted approval of Pétain and the other old generals.

In approving the Maginot Line and in advocating the "continuous front" policy, Pétain did not even prove consistent. Thus, in 1934, as Minister of War in the short-lived Doumergue Government, he told the army committee of the Senate that it was unnecessary to extend the Maginot Line to the Luxembourg frontier to the Channel, since "with a few destructive armoured divisions we could be in the Ardennes without being impeded by the frontiers of Belgium, while, to defend the northern frontier, one must go into Belgium". Although Professor Chapman is rather more charitable to Weygand, Pétain, and Gamelin, the three leading military figures in the

book: none of them proposed to do anything about Hitler's reoccupation of the Rhineland; none thought it possible for France to go to the defence of Czechoslovakia; none favoured any kind of striking force—either in the form of German-like tank formations or of a powerful air force. In the end, the Maginot Line was not extended; the Ardennes, far from being "impenetrable", proved that fatal gap through which the German armoured divisions poured into France in May, 1940, and France had neither the necessary tank formations, still less an air force, to put up any serious resistance.

If the French generals proved incompetent, the French politicians proved equally lamentable—with only a few exceptions like M. Paul Reynaud. Decisions were left to figures like Albert Sarraut, who uttered dreadful threats the day Hitler reoccupied the Rhineland only to climb down a few days later, "since the British wouldn't help", or, worse still, to a nonentity like Edouard Daladier, "le taureau de Vauluse", who clung to the post of War Minister for years on end. He was the great patron of Gamelin, whose irresponsible optimism was as great as Pétain's and Weygand's. Daladier, though at first uneasy about betraying Czechoslovakia, promptly turned himself into a national hero after Munich, thundered against the communists, and other "warmongers", prided himself during the "phony war" on being "avare du sang français", and created a super-Maginot myth by declaring on every occasion that "formidable" field fortifications had been built all along the Belgian frontier, with the suggestion that a German invasion was even more impossible than before.

Professor Chapman deals with one of the less familiar, but immensely important, aspects of France's unpreparedness for the invasion: and that was the extreme weakness of the French armaments, and particularly aircraft, industries. If France today is one of the great industrial powers of the world, she was nothing of the kind in the 1930s. Professor Chapman draws a truly depressing picture of the state of the French aircraft industry. Thus, in 1933 it was discovered that the French air force was completely obsolete and that "no plan of attack or defence had been drawn up since 1918". In 1934 a "Plan I" was adopted; but, by 1938, the 1,375 planes, only 130 had been ordered since the adoption of this Plan. At the time of Munich, General Vuillemin, Chief of Air Staff, reported that he could put 250 fighters in the air and 320 bombers. He expected some help from Britain,

and ordered some planes from the United States; but, at the same time, expected 40 per cent casualties at the end of the first month, and 64 per cent by the end of the second. The situation in the tank industry was little better. It was impossible, in these conditions, to expect a high morale on the part of the ordinary French soldier in May and June, 1940. How could there be? The nation had been fed on myths for years. Both the generals and the politicians had misled it and this suddenly became tragically apparent the day the German panzers began their dash from Sedan to the Channel ports, with nothing to stop them, and the Luftwaffe spread panic among both soldiers and civilians, neither knowing where any help could come from. Add to this the British "desertion" at Dunkirk, and the feeling of complete isolation could not but breed defeatism.

Professor Chapman tells the story in minute detail, discussing the faults and merits of a large number of French generals and army units. It is not a story of a simple débâcle. Since the French lost 120,000 soldiers in dead alone, it is wrong to suppose that they did not fight. Many did, though as a matter of personal honour, rather than with any conviction that France had any chance of winning the war. This would account for the good fight put up here and there, for instance, by de Lattre de Tassigny at Belth, or de Gaulle at Abbeville, or by Billotte, Blanchard and others in the north. But, especially after Dunkirk, the French army, and even more so, the civilians, were almost completely demoralized, and the Armistice was accepted, in the main, with a sigh of relief. One of the most paradoxical phenomena was Pétain. The man who, according to Professor Chapman, was more to blame than any other for the twenty years of blunders that had made the catastrophe inevitable, became the Saviour of France—and was accepted as such, if not by all Frenchmen, then certainly by a great majority—at least in June and July, 1940.

One of the few "positive" characters to emerge from this wretched story of general incompetence and inefficiency is M. Raoul Dautry, a high-ranking engineer, who became Minister of Armaments during the "phony war". He was the type of efficient technocrat who was to become a familiar French figure under the Fourth and Fifth Republics. Under the Third, he was almost unique. If there had been hundreds of Dautrys in France between 1918 and 1940, the whole story of 1940 would have been a very different one.

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## The end of Denmark's neutrality

Dansk Sikkerhedspolitik 1948-1966: Fremstilling, 187pp. Dansk Sikkerhedspolitik, 1948-1966: Bilag, 541pp. Udviklingen inden for Nato, 1966-1967, 76pp. Copenhagen: Danish Ministry of Foreign Affairs. 45 Kr.

This series, begun by a Danish Socialist Government and recently completed by their non-socialist successors, contains, in spite of gaps which will be indicated, much original material of considerable value to the historian of European politics in the past twenty years.

When the Germans occupied Denmark in April, 1940, they ended an unbroken seventy-six years of peace for the smaller country. By the war against Denmark of 1864, Prussia annexed a large area of Danish territory. But although Danish deputies in the Reichstag championed Danish cultural rights, there was no active political movement for the recovery of the lost territory. Denmark was lucky to have it restored by the Allies' victory in the First World War, in which Denmark took no part. But, with statesmanlike prudence, the Danes consented to take back only such territory as was, after a plebiscite, acknowledged to be unquestionably Danish. This restraint no doubt played some part in the friendly relations which Denmark was able to maintain with Germany, even in the Nazi period. But Danish governments of socialists and doctrinaire pacifist radicals consistently refused to increase the national defences as demanded by the opposition.

Against the Germans in April, 1940, Denmark was unable to offer more than a brief token resistance—and it is questionable whether improved defences would have led to any other result, with Denmark linked to no ally. After the end of the Second World War, Danish governments of whatever party agreed that Denmark must not remain isolated but should rebuild her defensive forces, with a view to establishing a Nordic defence pact. But Denmark, they all said, must remain aloof from "power-blocks", and a non-socialist government carried neutrality so far in April, 1946, as to solicit arms from the Soviet Union as well as from the United States and the United King-

dom. Moscow, however, declined to receive a Danish military mission to discuss Danish military requirements, and the Danish Ambassador in Washington, Henrik Kauffmann—who had, during the war, without authorization from his government, which he regarded as under duress, made an agreement with the Americans about the defence of Greenland—emphasized to the Copenhagen government his conviction that American military assistance would hardly be given to Denmark alone or even to a Nordic alliance tied to a policy of "non-alignment" (or "alliance-free", as the Scandinavians called it).

Denmark was pulled in two contrary directions, towards absolute "non-alignment", as insisted upon by the Swedish Government, or towards defence agreements with the United States, the United Kingdom and the other countries which eventually created Nato. The latter line was increasingly taken by Norway which, with a long Atlantic seaboard, considered it a pressing strategic necessity. In February, 1949, the Soviet Union tried to deter Norway by offering a friendship pact, but it was too late; the Norwegian Foreign Minister was already on his way to Washington to discuss the terms for Norway's entry into Nato. No Soviet Friendship pact was offered to Denmark, only a very long and aggressive protest to which an appropriate reply was sent.

The communist coup in Czechoslovakia in 1948 greatly helped to convince both Danish and Norwegian public opinion that safety lay in a close association with Nato. The Danish Government—which had in the meantime been taken over by the socialists—felt that it could not take one more momentous step until one more attempt was made, and asked the Swedish Government whether they would form a military alliance with Denmark, without Norway expected, and in March, 1949, Denmark formally applied for membership of, and was cordially welcomed into, Nato. To have brought majority of Danes into line against such a long tradition of neutrality was an outstanding service rendered to his country by the late Hans

Hedtoft. A special Danish interest, Greenland, was safeguarded by an American assurance that that territory would never be used except for defence. Denmark has since then played an active part in Nato, and has even undertaken manoeuvres with Germans on Danish soil a step that went with a full reconciliation between Denmark and Federal Germany over the bitterly disputed Danish and German minorities. One historic hutchet in Europe was thus buried.

Such, in outline, is the story, which has its dramatic moments. It is told in detail in the first volume under review; the second volume gives 238 official documents. These cover the policy of Denmark and the United States; full knowledge of the part played by France and Great Britain must await publication of their archives. The only French reference is to M. Robert Schuman's approval of the Nordic Pact, and from the Danish Ambassador in London there are only one private letter and one dispatch, in which Count Reventlow expressed his concern lest Denmark

be suspected of helping to put pressure on Norway, and that Mr. Ernest Bevin had advised that the British Government wish to press Denmark into decision.

The third volume consists of statements reflecting Danish views on the various matters that have arisen in connection with the admission of Denmark to the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. The Danish people, who are just as pacifist and shortsighted as the British, preferred to do nothing at the end of the war, and the "Locarno guarantee" was already in the East "were already in the East" were already in the East. He made it abundantly clear that Hitler had taken the first step towards destroying the system of alliances on the Continent.

He has been observed that military policy was in contradiction with her foreign policy. Professor Chapman attributes this French middle between the two world wars to the incapacity of the political personnel of the Third Republic who, aware of the position of the French people, prepared to take any risk in order to avoid the description of "belle époque", and, secondly, to the even ineptitude of the French general staff.

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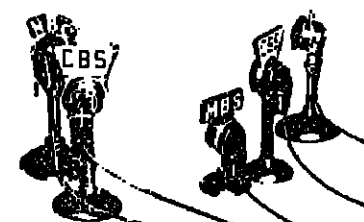
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Oxford University Press



# TLS

68th Year 13 MARCH 1969 No. 3,498

## Commentary

Anybody concerned by the problem "Whither Marshall McLuhan?" is likely to shake his head over a very odd new periodical called *The Marshall McLuhan Dew-Line Newsletter*. The preliminary publicity, written in language that might perhaps impress the susceptible advertising executive or softer-headed businessman, was disquieting enough, promising an inter-medial succession of "records, courses, sensory retraining kits, films, advance chapters from McLuhan's forthcoming books" at an all-in price of £20 for twelve monthly issues, and challenging hesitant subscribers to check their awareness with such unanswerable questions as "Why did IBM pay McLuhan thousands of dollars to devise a 'sensory profile' of their executives?" or "Why have advertising agencies become the most effective educational institution in our society?"

But the first issue of the article itself is a real ridiculous mouse of a thing. It is a squishy bound typescript of thirty-four pages by the Professor in person: it having hardly been clear from the sales talk whether he would actually be its writer or merely the father of the ideas contained in it—which is intended to be "a pocket book. To free ideas from the visual, linear, planned page format in which they are trapped in the ordinary book". Accordingly it confines itself to a minimal number of words per page. For example, says page 11 (in capital letters admittedly): "In summary, then . . .", says page 26. The next page repeats the argument, which has already been repeated once.

At a cost to the subscriber of roughly a shilling a page these are pretty costly words, and the only sense in which they are non-linear is that there are so few lines. Presumably the object is to give added punch to McLuhan's aphorisms, which are a characteristic mixture of the brilliant, the obvious, the exasperating and the nonsensical. For instance, Class 1: "Adv are all good news and need much bad news (real news) to make them palatable". Class 2: "Violence" (the main subject of the first issue) "is the effort to maintain or restore a weakened psyche". Class 3, after a note on the importance of "cans"—i.e., tinned food—in the development of the American West: "And back on the shores of civilization, Europe had hit on the Can Can!". Class 4: "War is . . . A sort of macroscopic gestulation".

Those commentators who have been recently writing to us about the use of the term "interface" will be interested to learn that "our real frontier, today is the interface or gap between the old mechanical hardware and the new electric software". This just refers not to processes like programming (which would be the more normal usage) but to services such as phone, light, radio, central heat, and television, which are "all freely accessible (for the most part) to everyone". This new-kind of distinction, according to which "cheap schools" (whatever that means) are the product of "the old mechanical hardware" while central heating and the motor car are software, bids fair to be even more muddling than the earlier McLuhanite categories of hot and cold. If only McLuhan would stop trying to keep one jump ahead.

Talking of jargon, how's this? The historically distorted idea which underlay the movement was that an

esthetic, economist reduction of the socialist mode of production and exchange to an administrative collectivity had occurred; and this consequently the *principles of bourgeois society* had been liquidated as a function of control. The syncretic global opinion that the revolutionary theory of the proletariat and still more its praxis sought to threaten the autonomous individual for the sake of the uniform collectivity, corresponded negatively to the pressing need of the reformist intelligentsia for socialism and "individual freedom" to be compatible.

Source: an article in the January-February number of *New Left Review* by Hans-Jürgen Krahl of the German left-wing student organization, the S.D.S. This piece is altogether worth studying, not least because it shows why the influence of the S.D.S. in the international student movement is not an entirely helpful one.

"Poetry is rather a private thing", mused amusing Bernard Braden from the stage of the Old Vic last Monday night. Relaxed in blood-red Bullfinch blazer, it was his genial task to coax a programme of *Poems of Love and Hate* from the mouths of two-dozen famous faces; on behalf of National Library Week. A volley of sardonic gags assured us that the evening was to be anything but harrowing or difficult, that most of the star performers, though engagingly under-rehearsed, had actually turned up, and that "we don't want this to be a personality contest". A grateful stir issued from the packed stalls. There was a ripple of evocative melody from a pretty harpist, some vile strumming from a handsome folk singer, and everyone was smilingly relaxed. It was going to be fun.

But then, how could it have been otherwise? The big stars came skipping on, each armed with the texts most suited to his or her terrific personality, and it was soon clear that one of the chief attractions of the evening was to be precisely the comic. Let Mr. Braden had (ironically?) disclaimed. But who, with such determined rivals, would eventually triumph? The really smart performers, one soon noted, had decided that the maximum audience response would be gained by selecting a solemn, sensitive poem and a funny, faintly daring poem: a big star must not be thought lacking in Rabensteinian humour but nor, in National Library Week, should he be seen as deficient in grave literacy. Not so smart were the performers who merely decided to hog the stage by choosing longer poems, than the others.

Even with these general guidelines, it was not easy to pick an outright winner. Not, certainly, David Jacobs, whose flaccid rendering of "A Subaltern's Love Song" was received in almost total silence. Nor, even more certainly, Patrick Wymark: he produced his familiar ranting mutilation of the text, evoking dire memories of his contribution to the International Poetry Festival two years ago. Nor A. J. Ayer. The logical professor came on burdened with three weighty tomes (ah, those professors!) and contrived to make "To His Coy Mistress" sound like Your Favourite Recipe. He was, it should be said, entirely outdone by his laughing wife, Dee Wells, who displayed a showbiz aplomb which must have won respectful murmurs from the real trouper waiting in the wings.

It is doubtful that even Lionel Hale would propose that this amusing imbroglio had very much to do with poetry, or that it would send many of the audience scurrying to their local libraries. On the contrary, judging from the reception given to some of the evening's choicer philistinisms, it is more likely to have intensified attachments to the smiling screen.

The archives of the House of Orleans are to be placed in the Archives Nationales in Paris. This was the agreement concluded between the Count of Paris and the Director of the Archives, André Chamson, and announced at a ceremony in the Palais de Soubise on Wednesday, March 5. It is being said that this "generosity royale" represents the most considerable gift ever to have come the way of the Archives Nationales, and even in a country where the great families are more ready to hand over their papers than are those of France, this appears as a remarkably rich acquisition.

The greater part of the collection is at present housed at Dreux. Since 1905 the archives, formerly held at Eu have also been placed there. Some of the documents go back to the thirteenth century, and a large part of them are concerned with the considerable properties which the Orleans family held. Their bulk is extensive and archivists talk of the need for 600 metres of shelving.

The Dreux archives have been consulted before. The American historian, Miss Beatrice Hyslop, for example, was able to carry out a considerable study of the fortune of the Duke of Orleans on the eve of 1789. Archives concerning the family are available elsewhere (there is a Fonds Orleans at the Institut de France). Therefore it is natural that the greatest interest should centre on that part of the collection which is virtually unknown and at present deposited in Coutils's Bank in London. These are the papers which Louis-Philippe brought with him to London. It is said that they include some hundred dossiers and about thirty thick files with documents. The Dreux archives have been catalogued although Miss Hyslop, speaking to the Société d'Histoire Moderne in 1952, said that she had found this cataloguing inadequate, but, so far as is known, there is no catalogue of these. Louis-Philippe's papers, for those who have seen the large, round handwriting of the king in the collections of, say, Croizat or

Duchâtel, his Ministers, noted his patient attention to detail, the large collection of his memoranda is most exciting.

Among the other collections, the papers of Louis-Philippe's grandson, Philippe, of the papers from the domaine of Sicily, and certain documents relating to the present Count of It is hoped that this large collection will soon be available to historians.

Our front-page article last week on Samuel Smiles's *Lives of the Great Men* and the growth in the of industrial archaeology reminded that one rich source of material for its students is the under promise of dispersal of sale; anything up to unwanted items from the British Rail, some of them with the early days of railway construction. In a letter printed on January 9, Mr. Manners described the value of this collection as "valuable" suggested that projects made to M.P.s. Such suggestions have since then been slipped the auction sale place, but it has flushed out assurance from the Railway through the Ministry of Transport that it will "consider applications from museums and the like" items of special interest to be selected from the sale and sold at a special price. It is hoped that this will happen with a number of items before the first sale on February 10.

The second sale will be on February 10, at 10.30, at 28, and it seems probable that librarians and other interested parties will do well to know that there is a "concession" to be made for particular treasures. I want to do so, the first sale is a catalogue of the next sale, auctioneers, 20 Hammer Lane, London, W.1 and the second sale to have the more promising drawn.

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# Parish by parish



## THE PLACE OF THE VICTORIA COUNTY HISTORIES IN THE REVOLUTION IN HISTORICAL METHOD

*Victoria History of the Counties of England*, Edited by R. B. Pugh. *History of Shropshire*. Volume 1. Edited by A. T. Gaydon. *A History of the County of Gloucester*. Volume 8. Edited by R. B. Pugh. 31 pp. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 1968. 18s.

In the past twenty years there has been a silent revolution in the study of history. Among amateurs and scholars a new interest has developed in the story of the local community and the evolution of provincialism. Thousands of enthusiasts have turned to the study of local history in their spare time, and in adult education departments the demand for a subject is greater than for political history. In colleges, a widespread movement has begun, and in schools and colleges, particularly in the younger children, who are less than their seniors in the examinations. Among the students in the university, the analysis of the 1968 list of dissertations in English history has been devoted to some kind of local history. With the publication of *The Local Historian* and the Local History, the subject has been a forum of its own. From the scholarly point of view, it is true, only a sanguine person could regard all these developments as anything but a misgiving. Yet, in a whole, they amount to a significant, in historical interests, in the world, must be to an observer on the scene.

What has caused this revolution in historical studies? Or is it really a revolution? Certainly it is not an entirely new phenomenon. Yet, though any honest local historian will admit how much he owes to the topographers of the past four centuries, there are differences in the current enthusiasm for the subject, and there are reasons for them.

In the first place, the foundation of county and city record offices, up and down the country, has opened up many new fields of exploration. Until these repositories were established, few people realized the amazing documentary wealth of provincial England, and fewer still had access to it. Except in the West Riding, county record offices have now been set up in every shire, and the collections they have built up have laid the foundations for a new vision of the English past. The work these offices have done over the past fifteen or twenty years, often with little money and not very much encouragement, has been one of the most constructive developments in historiography during this century. The expansion in the number of students using them over the past decade speaks for itself. In Bedfordshire visits have risen from 351 a year to 1,397; in Leicestershire from 394 to 1,334; and in Lincolnshire from 942 to 2,126.

With the availability of these new resources has arisen a different class of student. The person or squire with an enthusiasm for the subject is still, but under review there are also welcome

the friendly atmosphere of the research room one is quite as likely to meet a training-college student, a schoolmaster, a local chemist, a retired shopkeeper, a postgraduate, a bank clerk, an American donor, and a mother of two or three school-children. The variety is astonishing, particularly on early closing days. To a sympathetic eye there is, indeed, something impressive, almost touching, about the widow of a Midland postman spending all her Wednesday afternoons puzzling out the Elizabethan court-rolls of her native village. Just why, one wonders, does she do it? The English are at times a disconcerting people. One could hardly find such a scene in any other country. But beneath the shy, uncommunicative manner of this Warwickshire countrywoman you may find (if you are patient) one of the heirs of George Eliot's England.

Partly because local history is now studied by so great a variety of people, and in part because of the new academic interest in it, the approach to the subject has tended to change. Most competent local historians today are less interested than their forebears in the mere collection of antiquarian facts for their own sake. They also wish to classify and interpret the facts they collect. Under the guidance of scholars like W. G. Hoskins and H. P. R. Finberg, and of teachers sympathetic with their ideals elsewhere, the interest now centres on the historical development of the local community, and of the local landscape in which that community has developed. With the conviction that the minds and manners of provincial people of the past were primarily formed by the circumstances of their immediate environment, the intelligent student seeks to reconstruct the changing economy and society of his town or village over the centuries, and to trace its evolution as a whole, as a complete social organism, with a distinct, continuous, and independent life of its own.

How far has the *Victoria County History* adapted itself to these new opportunities and ideas in local history? Of the rapidly growing corpus of manuscript sources it has certainly taken advantage. In the two volumes under review there are also welcome

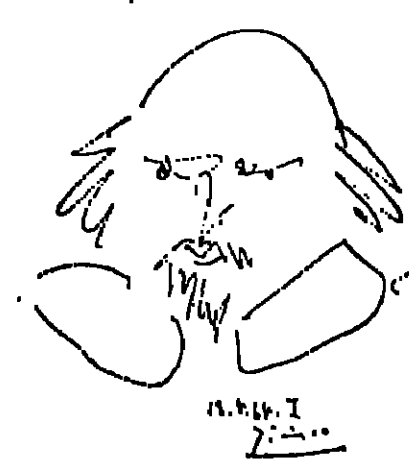
signs of a growing awareness of the historical meaning of the local landscape: the topographical sections of some of the parishes in the Shropshire volume are particularly perceptive, and the illustrations skilfully selected. Yet the general scheme still leaves something to be desired.

Readers of *Text of the D'Urbervilles* will remember how the antiquary Parson Tringham, overtaking the rickety footsteps of Jack Durbeyfield of a May evening in Blackmore Vale, twice or thrice addressed him as Sir John and then related to him how he had been "hunting up pedigrees for the new county history". Tringham proceeded to inform Durbeyfield of his ancient descent from the d'Urberville family and to trace in his features the profile of the knightly d'Urbervilles of old—a still noble though "a little debased". The incident epitomizes something that was highly characteristic of Victorian society, and of much of the local history written in preceding centuries: the extraordinary hold of the mythology of blood over the English mind, which not all the angry scholarship of a Horace Round could quite destroy. It was in this England, less than a decade after *Tess* appeared, that the *Victoria County History* itself was born. The marks in some degree it still bears the marks of its parentage. Can one be living in the twentieth century, one wonders, even in deepest Shropshire, and reading that this volume has been largely financed by a "group of local patrons"? No doubt only a very churlish raterpayer would object to so felicitous a euphemism for what turns out to be the local County Council: yet perhaps it is not unfair to feel that it is also symptomatic of a certain mental outlook. In these lavish volumes, we are still too much preoccupied with the squire and his relations: worthy and important people, but still not the only members of the local community, even in Hanoverian England.

To a great extent this preoccupation is forced upon the *Victoria County History* by the highly schematized version of parish history it has adopted, and it must be admitted that this schematization has a good deal to commend it. In contrast with far too much of the amateur study

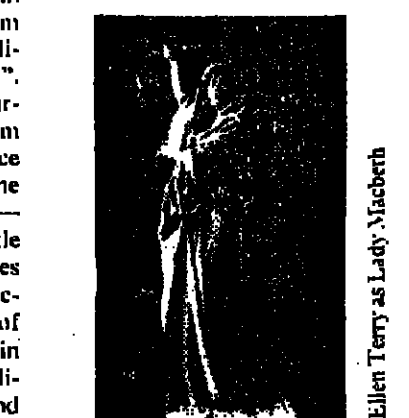
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## Macbeth and the Players

DENNIS BARTHOLOMEUS

This book reconstructs the major interpretations of Macbeth and Lady Macbeth from the earliest recorded performances to the present decade. By imaginative use of a great variety of sources—old play bills, prompt-books, newspaper and magazine reviews and personal interviews, as well as conventional bibliographical sources—the author builds up detailed descriptions of each. He is then able to make comparative judgements of actors who have played Macbeth centuries apart, such as Burbage, Macready and Olivier; and of actresses who have played Lady Macbeth, like Mrs. Pritchard, Sarah Siddons, and Flora Robson. 65s. net.

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# From meanders to mourners

J. N. COLDSTREAM: *Greek Geometric Pottery*, 465pp. Methuen, £12 12s.

The five centuries which separate the Trojan War of c. 1250 B.C. from the final version of the *Iliad*, which chronicled it, have long been regarded as the Dark Age of early Greece. No sooner was the war over than Greece began to be attacked by waves of mysterious and unidentified raiders, who in time destroyed nearly all the bronze-age palaces, at last overrunning the great fortress of Mycenae itself. With the palaces in ruins the art of writing in the Linear B script was lost, sculpture and mural painting ceased—for a long time new buildings had indeed no walls worth decorating—most technology was forgotten, and for 500 years darkness brooded over the land. This darkness has lately been illuminated a little by the publication of two archaeological works of synthesis by Mr. V. R. d'A. Desborough, *The Last Mycenaean and their Successors* (1964) and *Proto-geometric Pottery* (1962); and now we have Mr. Coldstream's eagerly awaited survey of Geometric pottery to complete the story from c. 900 to c. 700 B.C.

Greek Geometric pottery is easily recognized. Its decorative system is essentially light on dark, so reversing the emphasis of the Proto-geometric style. Following their Proto-geometric predecessors, the Geometric potters at first confined themselves to repetitive abstract decoration based on simple rectilinear forms or compass-drawn circles. Their most characteristic designs are the "meander" or key-pattern and the battlement-frieze, both of them usually solidified by hatching. These are accompanied by hatched triangles, massed zig-zags, and quatrefoil rosettes formed of intersecting arcs. The special virtue of Geometric work lay in the unflinching

coordination between the shape of the pot and the placing of the decoration, which served to articulate the various parts of the vessel; and this is as true of the later period when complex friezes of subtly varying width cover nearly the whole surface as it is, at the beginning, when a single panel might be the only ornament. The effect Mr. Coldstream well compares to that of a formal garden.

In the history of art, the Geometric vase-painting of Athens has a very special importance. An artist drew, c. 850-800 B.C., a woman and a horse on a huge krater which served to mark a tomb in the Kerameikos cemetery, and so began the European tradition of figure-painting which has not since been broken. (Mr. Coldstream's dating of this pot, much earlier than has been accepted hitherto, follows inevitably from the close analysis of the other contents of the grave.) Fifty years later these great pots began to carry the first narrative scenes of our artistic tradition—battles on land and sea, mourners about a bier, funeral processions. The finest were the work of the Dipylon Painter and his associates, c. 750 B.C.; and the fashion for representational art spread beyond Athens to Argos, Corinth, and elsewhere.

Faced with an embarrassing amount of material for *Greek Geometric Pottery*, Mr. Coldstream has decided astutely to say little of the fascinating problems which these

scenes pose. Do they represent contemporary life or the events of mythology, or both? What criteria can usefully be applied to decide this question? Are the stick-like figures deliberately conventionalized, or could the painters do no better? Or, to put the question differently, when did Greek art explicitly adopt the goal of *mimesis*, the truthful imitation of nature? Art-historians in particular will be enormously grateful to have been thus provided with a comprehensive and unprejudiced account of the material from which to attempt to answer such questions as these.

But it would be a mistake to suppose that Athens was the only considerable centre for the production of Geometric pottery, or that figure-scenes formed more than a small percentage of output even at Athens. The main part of *Greek Geometric Pottery* contains a close analysis of the pottery produced on the Greek mainland and in the Aegean basin, in which the author recognizes the wares of ten distinct local schools and examines their influence on one another. The sequence of styles is first established with greater precision than ever before; and then this sequence is linked to the few available fixed points of chronology. One would have hoped that the relatively numerous finds of Greek Geometric pottery in the Levant might allow precise dating, since the kingdoms of the Near East left written records of their conquests and destructions. The difficulty is that the archaeologists active in that area cannot agree on the pro-

per correlation of destruction-levels in their excavations with the written evidence. Nevertheless, a surprising amount of sense is wrested from the puzzling stratigraphy of Tell Abu Hawam, Hazor, Samaria and Megiddo—though Tarsus remains a baffling site.

The main Greek source for the dating of the later Geometric wares, Thucydides' statement of the sequence of the Greek settlements in Sicily in the second half of the eighth century B.C., has recently come under attack from the French excavators of Megara Hyblaea, who maintain that their site is wrongly placed in the Thucydidean sequence. If they are right, Thucydides' credit would be quite destroyed, and with it the possibility of reaching any absolute chronology of the period. Mr. Coldstream's close comparative study of the material vindicates Thucydides, whose dates may therefore continue to be accepted.

The book closes with a long chapter of historical conclusions—appropriately, since it deals with a period which saw the resumption of Greek overseas trade as well as the foundation of colonies far from the homeland, both of which activities involved the Greeks in extensive contact with non-Greek peoples for the first time since the Mycenaean period. The archaeological evidence confirms and amplifies the literary record most strikingly; though this

section would have been more convincing if space could have been found to discuss the colonial wars of the Euboean cities, identified by Mr. Boardman, as seen in the travels in great quantities of this rather dramatic statement of the concept behind them, primacy in mercantile activity shown less interest in the support the suggestion that settlement on colonial islands and chemistry, on the strong commercial contact of natives. This whole chapter is an admirable illustration of the archaeological method, in which a really rigorous analysis of the archaeological material leads to the recovery of details and economic history which might have been believed lost to call.

Mr. Coldstream has given measure to his "handbook" in a two-hand book, weighing sixty-four plates, and especially the process or one for which technology can in the future will remain for the foreseeable future. The fundamental biographical aspects are ignored. In this archaeological work, as well as the zoo could and should be an important contribution to our understanding.

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## Topless towers

MORTIMER WHEELER: *Flames over Persepolis*, 180pp. Weldon and Nicolson, £2 15s.

The publishers very sensibly invited Sir Mortimer Wheeler to "write a little book for general reading based upon some historic episode of his own choice", and this is the result. He has had the idea in mind since he first visited Persepolis some twenty years ago; and his experience fits him uniquely to write a study of the consequences, in terms of art and archaeology, of Alexander's decision to turn east and not west after he had burnt Persepolis. The result is a first-rate specimen of the modern gift-book: an excellent author writing on his own subject; a text which is short and readable, but scholarly; a few very attractive photographs, a few unavailable elsewhere and some lusciously coloured (one suspects that they are a trifle too yellow, but it is rash to say so without having trodden in the footsteps of Alexander and Sir Mortimer; and anyway it is better than being too blue); good plans, and a rather sketchy map.

Sir Mortimer starts with the familiar story of the burning of Persepolis: as one would expect from his soldierly character, he finds the story that it was burnt on Thais's suggestion, as a revenge for the burning of Athens, neither improbable nor shocking. Next comes a short excursus on the contrast between Greek and Persian art. Then he takes us through the remains so far discovered—and it is clear that there is much more to be found—of the Greek cities founded by Alexander and his successors between Persepolis and the Helms. There is much here that will be unknown to any but the specialist, since recent excavations have radically changed the position.

This section is the most interesting: it covers his own excavations and those of his predecessors in Pakistan, where Greek art and city-forms took a strong root for a long period, and were not entirely abandoned, as he

shows, by the Kushan, who came the Greco-Indian style. Still more, it covers the discoveries at the northern end of Afghanistan, where the Greeks began to excavate a Greco-Bactrian city whose extent shows up the fully under a screen of yellow earth. Further north, alas, little is known about the Russian excavations. Alexander's most distant descendant.

It is clear that in a few years more will be known of the duration of Greek civilization in the east, and the impact of the arts and of the time now we have known about the phenomena. Ashoka's inscriptions in Greek found in the purely Muslim world, and he gives a chapter to the lasting effect on Indian art of the texture of the craftsmen of the polis, dispersed and without occupation after it had been by Alexander, who found the rich lands of India.

The last chapter, which is prudently without a strong opinion, is about Gandhara, a long time it was thought to be of Greek origin; then it was found that no real evidence of Greek art in Gandhara was Sir Mortimer himself. Roman influences, which were regarded as the simplest of the more elaborate, becomes evident however the line, some of the major decorative changes having occurred not enough of it has been yet to prove anything about hana. Judging by eye, Sir Mortimer's suggestion is not wholly disproved. It is hard to believe that an art which has been in common with contemporary developed independently in the West. Wherever the products of the were appreciated, they have served. One can only see.

## MANY-MINDED HOMER

W. F. JACKSON KNIGHT

To read of the impact of Homer on someone as clever and lively as Jackson Knight cannot fail to be an experience. —*Yorkshire Post*

Those who love Homer will find this book a precious illumination. —*Yorkshire Post*

George Allen & Unwin

## Why we need zoos

LUCAS (Editor): *International Zoo Yearbook*, Volume 6. The Zoological Society of London, £6 6s.

For once remarked, the H. of less significance than is usually given to his own study and to the Levant. This rather dramatic statement of the concept behind them, primacy in mercantile activity shown less interest in the support the suggestion that settlement on colonial islands and chemistry, on the strong commercial contact of natives. This whole chapter is an admirable illustration of the archaeological method, in which a really rigorous analysis of the archaeological material leads to the recovery of details and economic history which might have been believed lost to call.

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We educational tools in a school setting. Unfortunately, the level that is projected is ill-suited to a child of five; the children to the zoo is, in

a sense, an indictment. Thus, the animals are accompanied by a notice giving name, locality and bare habitat details, and the placement of the cages affords merely a clue to the animal's position in the zoological hierarchy. Feeding, grooming or the occasional desultory masturbation by some primate—these hardly provide the public with much insight into the biology of the species or its inter-relationships with living forms around it. Biologists actively working on living animals would deny that this is mere cynicism.

The present ninth volume of the *International Zoo Yearbook* contains a welcome plea by Stephen Boyden for a new type of zoo which would aim to provide a much more meaningful biological education for the public than the conventional zoo. Mr. Boyden envisages a biological centre whose emphasis would be on man as a participant in the biological scene rather than as a mere onlooker. The museum and the zoo would be bridged, with all the advantages of the appeal of live animals. Such a programme during the remainder of this century might enable Konrad Lorenz to turn his energies to the lesser problem of the Bomb.

Zoos fulfil a second function: increasingly, they have become centres for research on live animals, a fact amply demonstrated by this *Yearbook* and its predecessors. This year the special subject is reptiles and amphibians (apes, elephants, small mammals, aquatic penguins, and so on in previous years). The thirty-seven short papers, which range from the chatty informal to the briskly scientific, cover developments in breeding and husbandry

that are of great interest to both scientist and zooman. Is ultra-violet light essential or harmful to captive animals? Will reptiles kept constantly at "optimum" temperatures "burn themselves out"? How should one induce snakes to feed? These are some of the topics discussed, and clearly there is something of interest for a wide range of specialists. These papers, of course, represent only the tip of the iceberg, since very many workers use zoo facilities and publish elsewhere.

A third function of zoos, more directly concerned with the impoverishment of man's habitat, is to salvage species threatened with extinction. In spite of much propaganda, there are still far too many people who fail to appreciate the precious genetic wealth represented by every living species. This virtual treasure trove must be preserved for the day when we can eventually manipulate and harness the processes of heredity to the production of even more useful forms of life. It is heartening, however, to read in the present *Yearbook* that of the 177 animals listed as rare by the International Union

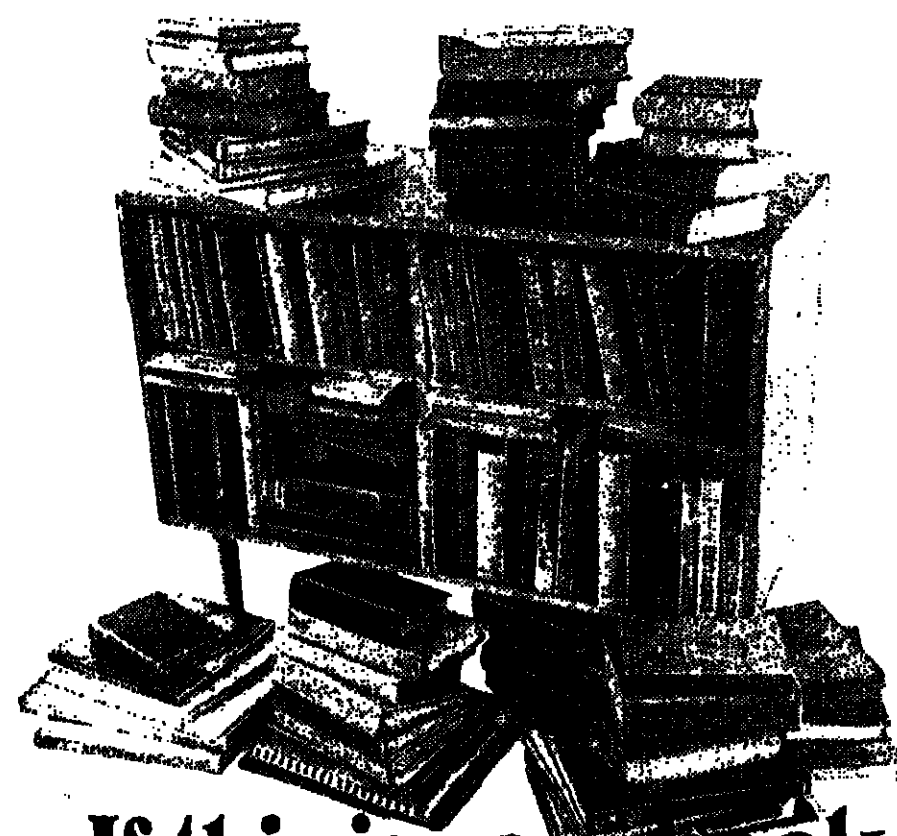
for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources, no less than fifty-five mammals, seventeen birds, eight reptiles, one amphibian and one fish were bred in captivity during 1967. These include Przewalski's Horse and Père David's Deer, for which studbooks are established, as well as the Orin-utan and Arabian Oryx, whose studbooks are now planned. The impressive list of animals bred in zoos is certainly in part due to the establishment of the *Yearbooks* as a means of disseminating recent findings on breeding requirements.

The second section of the *Yearbook* contains articles on zoo architecture, breeding in various animals, conservation, education and husbandry. Those who referred to Lord Snowden's ingenious contribution to the London Zoo as "that bird cage..." would be well advised to visit some of the wealthy zoos abroad; new materials and a new understanding of animal requirements have had profound effects on the design of zoo buildings.

A final section of the *Yearbook* contains a supplement to last year's list of zoos, parks and collections, to-

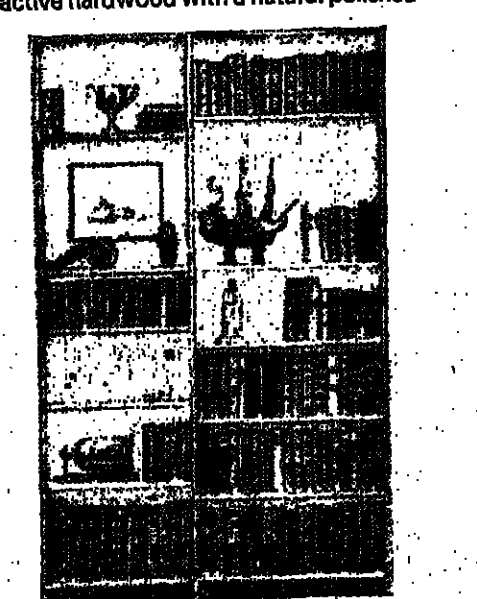
gether with a census of rare animals and a list of all animals bred in zoos in 1967. There is also a useful compilation of aspects of research carried out at zoos.

Once again, the editors and their committee must be congratulated on the pleasing format and typographical design adopted. The print is small, but the amount of information contained in a book of this size more than compensates. The choice of photographs is good and is particularly effective where an actual series of shots illustrates some breeding or behavioural activity. Although stated to have been brought up to date, a few zoological names will distress the expert (*Macropus congnit*, for example), but this detracts little from the general excellence and care with which the *International Zoo Yearbook* has been compiled. Perhaps the most fitting testimony to the excellence of the series is the fact that the first two volumes are now being reprinted. If the *Yearbook* is an effective weapon in the battle for biological understanding, its triumph will be the appearance of Konrad Lorenz in Trafalgar Square.



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## Books received

### Archaeology

**Norfolk Archaeology** Volume 34, Part 3, pp. 234-235. Norfolk and Norwich Archaeological Society. (Garrett House, St. Andrew's Plain, Norwich.) 30s.

Jewelry, coins and pottery dug up in Norfolk are the subjects of four of the papers in the current archaeological journal from Norwich. An enamelled bronze bracelet of Roman origin came to light at Southwold; a Celtic intaglio was found during river dredging at Caistor St. Edmund; there was last year's hoard of 1,100 Roman coins discovered at Mattishall; and finds of medieval pottery on a building site in old Yarmouth. Illustrated reports on all these finds are here published. Among other contributors, Mr. Trevor Fawcett has hit on an unusual subject in the transparently painted pictures on a diaphanous screen lit from behind displayed at patriotic celebrations in Norwich during the Napoleonic wars.

### Architecture

**Fletcher, Valentine. Chimney Pots and Smokestacks**. 115pp. Centaur Press, £2.5s.

Good craftsmanship and distinctive design are to be discerned in many of the older chimneys. Mr. Fletcher, more observant of these than most people are, has written an interesting monograph on their history and variety of types, from the tall stacks on monasteries or minor houses to the low chimney stuck into the crofter's thatched roof. His photographs and drawings reveal how chimney design varies from district to district (and again in continental countries), and the book concludes with sketches of more than 300 types of modern pot designs. His travels with head in air have produced an unusual and instructive volume.

### Biography and Memoirs

**Campbell, Patrick K. The Course of Events**. 180pp. Anthony Blond, 25s.

**Reid, Colin. Life with my Wife and other Discoveries**. 82pp. Souvenir Press, 16s.

One of Patrick Campbell's qualities, unusual for a professional droll, is that he reads more engagingly in bulk than in separate pieces. What engages is the intensity with which Mr. Campbell gets entangled in fantasies of his own imagining, weaving hopeless complexities out of perfectly ordinary situations, a spider caught in its own web.

He also has the unexpected gift of being able to win variety by shifting the point of view. His total lack of communication with an Algerian odd-job man, seen entirely through the Algerian's eyes, is one of the funniest things in the book. But most of it is the record of an Irish civil war—the real Campbell versus the fantasy Campbell.

In Colin Reid's case it is his wife who is Irish, and the civil war inevitably takes on blander overtones. A funny man can hardly save his wife in the way that he is expected to save himself. This collection is hastily, and in the teeth of the title, dedicated "to my wife with love". This means that the lady, for the mild delectation of *Daily Mail* readers and now, is free to hog Mr. Reid's blankets, now down his garage door-post, induce his sympathetic pregnant; inspire his overdrifts, and generally make life a lucrative hell for the poor man.

**Cotes, Austin. Myself a Mandarins: Memoirs of a Special Magistrate**. 250pp. Muller, 25s.

Although Mr. Cotes's career as a Hong Kong Magistrate ended in 1956, the theme uniting the anecdotes which form the basis of his unpretentious but skillfully written little book is extraordinarily topical. Dealing with cases for the most part under Chinese law, he had an excellent opportunity to observe how Chinese culture produces Chinese logic. His conclusion is that "to anyone trying to understand other races, in this world, the Chinese surely pose the greatest challenge". On first

acquaintance, he was struck by their preoccupation with their own affairs and their apparent lack of interest in anything from the non-Chinese world. He grew in time to admire and like them, but never ceased to be surprised by the way their minds worked. His discoveries on this subject are enshrined in his separate story, in a fashion reminiscent of Sherlock Holmes: thus, the occasional thinness of plot is disguised by the easy run of the prose, and by a neat disposition of suspense. The elements of these true stories are pleasantly unexpected: one may read, for example, of the case of the injured dragon, though perhaps the best concerns the abbot, the graves, and the giant African snail.

**Levi, Mary M. Catherine the Queen**. 510pp. Muller, £2.10s.

It is twenty-seven years since the publication of Garrett Mattingly's life of Catherine of Aragon; this new American biography of the queen treats its subject at nearly twice the length. The portrait is a sympathetic and admiring one and the writer is at pains to show that Catherine played a bigger part than is often realized in the events of her time. Whether she was, as the blurb asserts, "a woman of enormous stature" the reader must judge for himself.

**Mook, Penderel. Gandhi and Modern India**. 307pp. The English Universities Press, 15s.

*Gandhi and Modern India* is beyond question the best short account of Gandhi's life and career to be written in English; and students of Indian nationalism, dazed and battered by the mountainous avalanche of material about the "Mahatma" which continues to pour from the presses of India, will turn with relief to Sir Penderel Mook's cool, detached and yet sympathetic estimate of what Gandhi contributed to the achievement of Indian freedom. Cynics have remarked that the semi-dedication of this strange little man by his countrymen has gathered momentum precisely in proportion to the abandonment of his teaching by the realists who now control the destinies of India. This is not entirely true; his ideals still count for much; and departure from them, however inevitable, is sincerely lamented. No one can read this book without forming a more just estimate of what Gandhi achieved—and failed to achieve—in the three spheres of reorganizing the Congress, giving a decisive turn (for the worse, alas!) to Hindu-Muslim relations; and perfecting the techniques of non-violence as a political weapon.

**Broadcasting**

**Dimmock, Peter. Television Outside Broadcasts**. 10pp. Curran, Charles J. *Broadcasting from West of 31*. 19pp. B.B.C.

Texts of two of the lunchtime lectures given last autumn at Broadcasting House. In the first of the series Mr. Dimmock talked about the problems faced in organizing "live" television broadcasts from outside the studios. In the second Mr. Curran looked ahead to the 1970s and to the great influence which he believed British broadcasts could have abroad. He laid the greatest stress on the accurate reporting of news which had given the B.B.C. its high reputation overseas, especially during the war. "The broadcasting future belongs, in my view, to reporting and not to polemic."

**Cookery**

**Hanbury Tenison, Marika. Sops and Hurs d'Oeuvres**. 304pp. Penguin, 7s. 6d.

This new Penguin cookbook contains more than 750 recipes for first-course dishes, in an intelligent arrangement and with clear instructions. There are a few gastronomic solecisms, and Mrs. Hanbury Tenison's style is trite, but the book is a useful addition to an excellent series.

### Drama

**Ford, John. The Chronicle History of Perkin Warbeck**. Edited by Peter Ure. 276pp. Methuen, £2.2s.

The play which T. S. Eliot thought Ford's highest achievement, and Shakespeare apart, one of the very best of Elizabethan historical plays appears in Methuen's Revok edition with an introductory study of it by Mr. Peter Ure as editor. He rejects the notion that this play is partly Dekker's and gives Ford credit for the whole; the difference from Ford's

other works can better be explained, he thinks, by the fact that in turning to a history-play the dramatist was on unfamiliar ground. In his portrayal of Katherine, John Ford reveals, his latest editor suggests, how great a novelist he would have been had he lived in the age of Henry James. Sources for the play, Gainsford's history of Perkin and Warner's *Albion* in England, are provided in the appendices.

### Economics

**Phillips, Browne, F. H. with Margaret H. Brown. A Century of Pay**. 476pp. Macmillan, £5.5s.

Subtitled "The course of pay and production in France, Germany, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States of America, 1860-1960", this book is required reading for all concerned with, or about, inter-time and inter-national comparisons of production, productivity, real income rises, and pay. The natural loading with statistics and tables pays off by enabling readers to spot periods (sometimes even causes) of more and less rapid growth: e.g., Sweden's phenomenal and supra-average performance falls into proportion once one perceives how much slower it was between 1860 and 1914 than those of the others. The well-known but little-publicized fact that real proportions of national incomes and of growth falling to labour (employees) remain remarkably similar in all countries examined emerges with striking clarity.

**The European Free Trade Association and the Crisis of European Integration**. By a Study Group of the Geneva Graduate Institute of International Studies. 324pp. Michael Joseph, £2.2s.

Completed in March, 1967, this book shows remarkable foresight and provides much useful contemporary checks, figures, &c., for EFTA, EEC's, and others' current problems and discontents.

**Hirst, Fred. Money International**. 44pp. Allen Lane: The Penguin Press, £3.10s.

Sane, sound exposition and recommendations for national and the international monetary systems by former *Economist* and *Banker* writer, with much useful historical and statistical material; no comfort for inflators or debt incinerators; valuable for students and those puzzled by current monetary ills.

### History

**The Devonshire Association for the Advancement of Science, Literature and Art: Report and Transactions**. Vol. 100. 444pp. The Association (7 The Close, Exeter). £3.

The twenty papers in this volume include the first of a series on old Devon farmhouses, of which four in the north of the county and one near Exeter are described with plans and photographs. Monumental brasses; the reclamation and embanking of the Brixton marshes near Ilfracombe; Charles II at Plymouth; a short biography of Sir Humphrey Gilbert; Sir John; and evidences of Christianity in the Roman West Country are a few among a wide variety of contributions. An interesting modern enterprise is described by Mr. A. P. G. Michell in his account of the Herbert Whitley Trust under which the zoological and botanical gardens at Paignton, begun as a private hobby, have been converted into a centre for open-air scientific education.

**Forster, G. C. F. (Editor). Northern History**. Volume 3. 240pp. University of Leeds, 25s.

The nine papers that make up this volume of historical essays range from the Roman north-west to the operations of local government in Victorian Lancashire; from the Scarborough fishermen of the fifteenth century to the St. Helens glass-makers of the seventeenth, and to the child-factory workers of the early nineteenth. In another paper Mr. J. A. Tuck discusses the uneasy relations of Richard III with the Border magnates who, until that king began to appoint wardens from outside, had enjoyed the unquestioned dominance of the region.

**Gilbert, Martin. Jewish History**. 412pp. Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 35s.

The fourth in Mr. Gilbert's admirable series of historical atlases covers the story of the Jewish people from

Genesis to the Six Day War. The maps, clearly drawn in black-and-white by Arthur Banks, illustrate anything from migration routes to a detailed population analysis of the East End of London in 1900. The text is an integral part of each map—an explanation of what is shown, an illuminating comment, often an apt quotation. There is an index and a bibliography. The reader can learn the basic facts about this extraordinary subject more quickly here than in any ordinary history. There are a few lapses, such as the badly-drawn map of "London Jewry since 1900" in which more than half of the information dates from before 1900, and the German Jewish settlement of the 1930s is not mentioned.

**Levine, A. I. Industrial Retardation in Britain, 1880-1914**. 201pp. Weidenfeld and Nicolson, £2.2s.

Attributed to Dr. H. (Editor). *The Development of British Industry and Foreign Competition, 1875-1914*. 384pp. Allen and Unwin, £3.

Canadian Professor Levine's book emphasizes the relative backwardness of British manufacturing sixty years ago as against Germany and the United States, and goes into our trade union mentality and restrictive and other practices, poor management, &c., concluding that it was mainly due to nation-wide resistance to innovation; a worthwhile assembly of arguments and documents, including the little-publicized "Mowley Report" of 1903. Fuller, deeper analyses of our failures to compete, industry by industry, are in the University of Glasgow Social and Economic study, which covers the general problems in a good opening essay by the editor, the coal, cotton, iron and steel, woolen and worsted, hosiery and shoe, engineering, electrical, chemical, and glass industries, all by able, instructed university lecturers in economic and industrial history. The editor makes the point, just being realized by financial journalists, that our propensity to import as a nation rather than to export was growing before the end of the last century. A fine, sound, instructive set of original, hitherto unpublished, essays.

### Literature

**Nathan, Alex (Editor). German Men of Letters**. Volume V. 39pp. Oswald Wolff, £2.2s.

There is something strangely depressing about the "German Men of Letters" series, the fifth volume of which, dealing with "a dozen neglected poets and writers" of the nineteenth century, has just appeared. If it were possible (which is doubtful) to read right through this volume, one would be left feeling that one's time would have been far better spent on a monograph of the same length, if not on actually reading some of these writers' "neglected" works—neglected no doubt because of too many volumes such as the present one.

*German Men of Letters V* is not helped by Mr. Nathan's pompous and superfluous introduction: "They (the writers) belonged to the nineteenth century which rests, even in intelligent generalisation, in a few words. Too variegated was the plenitude of phenomena..." Surely such a feat is not beyond Mr. Nathan, who manages to condense the condensed by covering the authors, rather like the archetypal American tourist "doing" Europe, at an average of 1.5 pages per writer.

Most of the essays are swamped by a mass of quotation and close textual criticism which prevents a real argument getting going, and a greater emphasis on biographical and historical information—in short, facts—would have been far more useful. It is difficult to say whom this work is intended for; the undergraduate, confused by unexplained sides such as "Schiller's unfortunate *Die Jungfrau von Orléans*", will find on looking up the note the valuable information: "The *Maid of Orléans*". Is it then for the specialist? But all the German in the text is translated in the notes. Perhaps the book is for the Germanist who doesn't know any German.

**Warburg, James P. C. The Middle Ages**. 38s.

Mr. Warburg's book, "The Middle Ages", has some of the qualities. It is lucid and is relatively objective, and a few individuals (e.g. Dante) are emphasized that even the Middle East have more about them than is usually allowed. It is not marred by a sad quantity of mistakes. The placing of the Crusades in the wrong century (the twelfth instead of the thirteenth) and the wrong continent (the Middle East instead of the Near East) are two of the more obvious. The book is a good read, but it is a pity that it is so full of errors.

**Social Studies**

**Yearbook of Labour Statistics, 1968**. 830pp. Geneva: International Labour Office. £4.10s. (Paperback, £3.5s.)

with text in English, Spanish, Italian, and French. The L.L.O. yearbook marks the anniversary of the 119th year of the L.L.O. with an introductory survey of social history, which gives a general information about employment, unemployment, hours and prices, and wages, past half-century.

### Transport

**Bird, Anthony. Roadways**. 250pp. Longmans, £2.2s.

One of the first things that strikes the reader of Mr. Bird's book is the state of the road-building industry in the 1960s. The industrial revolution (ignoring the difficulties of the 1960s) was even basic maintenance of the turnpike system, improvements, inspired by Telford and Macadam, in the development of traffic from the days of the horse-drawn carriage to the motor car. This is a highly comprehensive study into the history of the road-building industry. It is a pleasure in elegant good engineering practice.

**Hartfield, Charles. The B.S.R.—The Inter-Group Laboratories of the British Steel Corporation**. 24, Buckingham Gate, London, S.W.1.

Mr. A. B. Driver, Personnel Officer, B.S.R.—The Inter-Group Laboratories of the British Steel Corporation, 24, Buckingham Gate, London, S.W.1.

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## VACANT APPOINTMENTS

### MANCHESTER COLLEGE OF COMMERCE

(POLYTECHNIC DESIGNATE)

#### Department of Librarianship

Applications are invited from suitably qualified persons for appointment to the undermentioned posts. The College is a centre of instruction, research, and degree and that professional courses, and is accommodated in a new building. The College will offer a three year Ordinary Degree Course in Library Studies under the auspices of the Council for National Academic Awards, commencing in September 1969.

**FE/16 Senior Lecturer/Lecturer in Information Retrieval (including Classification and Cataloguing)**

**FE/17 Senior Lecturer/Lecturer in Bibliographical Control/Subject Bibliography**

For both posts, applicants should be Chartered Librarians with good experience and possession of a University degree (particularly in the field of the Social Sciences) would be an advantage.

Appointments will be made on Senior Lecturer/Lecturer II grades according to qualifications and experience.

Salaries in accordance with the current Burnham report.

Senior Lecturer: £2,280-£2,995

Lecturer Grade II: £1,725-£2,280

Application forms and further particulars are obtainable from the Chief Librarian, Manchester College of Commerce, Education Office, 100, Victoria Square, Manchester, M1 4JH, on receipt of a self-addressed envelope and are returnable by 28th March 1969. Please quote appropriate reference number.

### COUNTY COUNCIL OF DUNBARTON

Applications are invited from Chartered Librarians for the post of

#### TRAVELLING LIBRARIAN

Applications from part qualified librarians will be considered.

Two mobile libraries, serving the western part of the County, are in operation from County Library Headquarters, Levenmouth House, Dunbarton.

Ability to drive a commercial vehicle will be an advantage.

Salary Scale: £1,011-£1,735. Starting salary may be above minimum.

Part qualified librarians: £810 to £1,011.

N.J.C. Conditions of Service, with placing according to qualifications and experience. The successful applicant will be required to pass a medical examination for admission to the Superannuation Scheme.

Applications, with the names of three referees, should be sent to the Director of Education, County Office, Dunbarton, at least as possible.

### COLLEGE OF LIBRARIANSHIP WALES

#### LIBRARY AND INFORMATION SERVICE

The College Library is entering upon the major stage in its development.

The building, in 1969 and 1970, of a major library at the centre of the College's construction programme.

Applicants are invited from experienced and qualified librarians for the following posts on the new establishment:

#### COLLEGE LIBRARIAN

(Principal Lecturer/Senior Lecturer Grade £2,280-£2,995/£2,530-£2,850)

and £2,280-£2,995

Applicants, giving full details of qualifications and experience, should send three references, together with the names of three referees, should be sent, as soon as possible, to the Director of Education, County Office, Dunbarton, at least as possible.

Applicants should also send a copy of their curriculum vitae, together with a copy of their references, to the Director of Education, County Office, Dunbarton, at least as possible.

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